

Modification of nanocrystalline cellulose for bioactive loaded films

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¹Research

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Abstract: Despite the use of petrochemical derived packaging, many problems such as browning and food spoilage still happen in food after harvesting. There is an increasing consumers concern for food shelf life to be extended as much as possible along with a big interest in green and bioactive materials, that could be used in direct contact with aliments. In order to reach public demand, biopolymers coming from natural sources such as plants or animals have been used to replace synthetic materials. Even though natural polymers are biodegradable, they don't reach regulations required with respect to mechanical properties in commercial applications. However, the mechanical properties can be improved when reinforced with nanoparticles. Several reinforcing polymers such as clays, silica or silver have been used for industrial applications, but cellulose nanocrystals (CNCs) are a better choice for food industry due to their biodegradable and biocompatible nature as well as their outstanding potential in improving mechanical and barrier properties of nanocomposites. CNCs consist of anhydroglucopyranose units (AGU) linked together and several functional hydroxyl groups found on its surface. Modifications of the CNC surface chemistry can give to cellulose new functionalities that open the way to the development of new bioactive reinforcement in food packaging. The present review will be focused on covalent and non covalent modifications that can be achieved on surface CNC with the aim of adding functionalities to be applied for food industry.

Keywords: food packaging, cellulose nanocrystals, CNC, acetylation, polymer grafting, TEMPO oxidation, layer-by-layer, cationic surfactants, radiation-induced polymer grafting.

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36 Introduction

37 Nowadays, consumer demand focuses on product shelf life [1], suppression of apparition of
38 undesirable and uncomfortable flavors and odors produced after a few days of storage [2].
39 Consumer interests in the addition of ingredients which can provide beneficial effects for
40 food quality and health is also increasing [3]. Due to the increase of consumer demand,
41 bioactive packaging has been proposed with the aim of remaining cost-effective and
42 healthy for consumption [4–6].

43 Functional biodegradable films have been implemented, for instance, an antimicrobial
44 packaging can be used as a retardant for microbiological proliferation [7] on fresh food.
45 Other functional packaging can be developed to avoid problems such as food browning,
46 discolorations and microbial spoilage.

47 Currently, scientists challenge lies on the use of active biopolymers such as chitosan, which
48 has the potential to preserve and protect from antimicrobial attack in food coatings [8].
49 However, the use of chitosan as a biodegradable film has some limitations such as poor
50 vapor barrier, weak mechanical properties [4] and also antimicrobial limitations when it is
51 used as insoluble films [9]. In order to improve the functionality of chitosan based films,
52 addition of active reinforcements has been proposed. Several composites have been
53 developed by adding reinforcement agents to polymers in order to enhance their thermal,
54 mechanical and barrier properties [10]. A uniform dispersion of these reinforcement
55 particles in polymer matrices can lead to a better molecular mobility, relaxation behavior
56 and the consequent thermal and mechanical properties of the material [10]. According to
57 Suyatma *et al.*[11] a reinforcing agent increases the physico-chemical properties, acting as
58 a lubricant in a polymer network. Taking into account that polymer-polymer interactions
59 within polymer chains are made of hydrogen bonding and van der Waals forces, a
60 reinforcing agent role is to break down these bonds and increase the flexibility of the
61 polymer network. Ludueña *et al.* [12] have demonstrated that the smaller the filler particles
62 loaded in polymer matrices, the better the interaction in the polymer network and the
63 higher is the cost-price efficiency. In this context several nanoreinforcements have been
64 interesting due to their high surface that provides better reinforcement effects [13–17].

65

66 In addition to the enhancement of mechanical and barrier properties given by
67 nanoreinforcements, there other several functionalities, for instance antimicrobial and
68 antioxidant activity that can be to the properties of the nanoreinforcements when they are
69 used for packaging systems. Some added properties can be achieved by covalent or non-
70 covalent modification of reinforcements based on polymer modifications presented in
71 literature. The aim of these new type of nanoreinforcements is to have "smart" properties
72 with applications of food packaging fields.

73

74 Nanocomposites

75 Nanoparticles have a great utility in biopolymer formulations for food preservation. In this
76 context, nanoparticles or nanoreinforcements are polymeric fillers which are characterized
77 by having one dimension in the nanometric range [18]. Thus, these nanosized inorganic or
78 organic fillers come with various geometries (fibers, flakes, spheres, particulates) [4]

79 Fillers can be classified in three categories, depending on whether the dimensions are in the
80 nanometric range or not. Spherical structures such as silica, nanotubes or nanocrystals can
81 be found in a wide dimensional range [10], but only those found nanometrical, will be
82 considered as a nanocomposite [18]. Several types of nanocomposites are found in
83 industrial applications, for instance Polymer-Clay-Nanocomposites (PCN) are used in food
84 packaging [17]. However, there is a coming interest on cellulosic nanoparticles due to its
85 abundant organic source and biodegradability and light weightiness. Major interest has
86 been found in using cellulosic materials as the main components in the manufacture of
87 biodegradable packaging materials [19–21], in addition to the stimulating search for non-
88 petroleum-based structural materials [22]. Several sizes of cellulose can be found like
89 fibers, cellulose microcrystals and cellulose nanocrystals which are obtained by physical
90 and chemical modifications of cellulose. Indeed, cellulose nanocrystals are extracted by via
91 chemical treatment with strong acids and the result is the cellulose within shape of
92 nanoparticles which surface is characterized of functional hydroxyl groups which allow
93 CNC to be soluble in water. Modifications of CNC such as grafting active polymers,
94 change of solubility and/or anionic charge can be carried on to give some functional
95 properties that can be applied for several purposes.

96 In this review, technological applications of biodegradable food packaging based on
97 modified cellulose will be discussed. After a brief introduction to cellulose characteristics
98 and its derivatives, cellulose nanocrystals (CNC) will be defined for nanocomposites
99 purposes in bioactive films.

100 *Cellulose-based nanoreinforcements*

101 Cellulose is an organic polymer known to occur in a wide variety of living species from the
102 world of plants, bacteria and animals. Cellulose structure consists of a linear homopolymer
103 of β -D-glucopyranose units which are linked together by (1→4)-glycosidic bonds [17]. The
104 degree of polymerization (DP) can be up to 10,000 - 15,000 [23]. Compared to inorganic
105 nanoreinforcements, cellulose has a positive impact in industrial applications because of its
106 advantages listed below [24]:

- 107 • renewable nature
- 108 • low cost
- 109 • low energy consumption
- 110 • easy disposal by combustion
- 111 • environmental acceptance
- 112 • wide variety available worldwide
- 113 • high specific strength and modulus
- 114 • comparatively easy processability due to their nonabrasive nature
- 115 • relatively reactive surface, which can be used for grafting specific groups.

116
117 Cellulose chains are aggregated microfibrils which contains amorphous and crystalline
118 regions. Habibi *et al.* [25] described the amorphous parts as chain dislocations along the
119 fiber contrary to the crystalline region where cellulose chains are tightly packed and linked
120 by a strong and very complex intra-and intermolecular hydrogenbond network. Crystalline
121 isolation from cellulose fibers was developed in 1950, when Rånby *et al.* [26] reported the

122 first sulfuric acid-catalyzed degradation of cellulose fibers. Since then, acid hydrolysis has
123 been applied to obtain nanocrystalline cellulose [25]. The obtained crystals keep a similar
124 crystallinity as that presented in the original cellulose fibers. However, dimensions can vary
125 depending on the source of the cellulose. For instance, CNC from wood are 3-5 nm in
126 width and 100-200 nm in length, while those obtained from *Valonia*, a sea plant, can be up
127 to 20 nm in width and 1000-2000 nm in length [25].

128
129 Cellulose nanocrystals are mostly extracted from plant cells walls, but it can also be found
130 in bacteria, algae or animals. However, it is shown that lignocellulosic derived nanocrystal
131 provide a higher mechanical strength and high mechanical strength-to-weight ratio
132 compared to other type of cellulose [22].

133
134 Because of its larger surface area to volume ratio, large amounts of bioactive molecules are
135 more likely to be attached to the cellulose surface due to high number of hydroxyl groups
136 available on its surface. This is the reason why, cellulose nanocrystals have been actively
137 investigated as a potential nanocomposite in material development [4,14,16,24,27,28].

138 ***Cellulose Nanocrystals (CNCs)***

139
140 The main process of isolation of CNCs is based on acid hydrolysis of cellulose with
141 concentrated sulfuric acid at different temperatures [25]. The resulting nanocrystals exhibit
142 negative sulfate ester groups attached onto the CNC surface, thus, providing a colloidal
143 stability in aqueous medium. Another process that has been found in literature [29–31] is
144 TEMPO-mediated oxidation, which consists in a surface modification of the primary
145 hydroxymethyl groups into a negatively charged carboxylic groups. The modified CNC
146 also form a homogenous suspension when dispersed in water due to the presence of
147 negatives charges.

148
149
150 Nowadays, researchers actively work on finding better ways to provide food quality and
151 beneficial health effects in this field. In this context hydrophobic components such as
152 essential oils, organic acid solvents additives or plant extracts have been added to food
153 coatings in order to avoid microbiological growth, thus, extending product shelf life [32–
154 36]. It is found that others structurally similar polymers have been chemically modified to
155 give functional properties. This is the case of antioxidant activities added to chitosan and
156 gelatin explained by the research group Curcio *et al.* [37] and Spizzirri *et al.* [38,39].
157 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) and oxygen-derived free radicals are the resulting
158 components of a biological oxidation that may contribute to pathological effects, such as
159 diseases and cellular degeneration, including aging, cancer and diabetes [40,41]. Even
160 though, the human body produces antioxidant that can retard this process, it is not sufficient
161 to prevent it from the entire damage [42,43]. If modification is performed onto CNC
162 surface, interesting antioxidant properties can be added to food coating in order to prevent
163 food rancidity and fast aging.

164
165 It may be noted that CNC has the advantage of having an abundance of hydroxyl groups at
166 its surface, thus, chemical modifications of these functional sites could be performed. The
167 modifications suggested in this review will allow CNC to enhance its compatibility and
168 dispersibility with other compounds such as antioxidants and antimicrobials essentials oils,

169 as well as, hydrophobic polymers. Results of modifications have the purpose of spreading
170 nanocellulose applications for food industry or other reliable fields.

171

172 **Surface modifications of CNC**

173

174 *Acetylation*

175

176 Due to the hydrophilic behavior of cellulose nanocrystals, there is an interest to improve its
177 compatibility with hydrophobic media. Acetylation is a reaction that allows the interaction
178 of hydroxyl groups (OH) with acetyl moieties. Studies reported [22,44] that a reaction of
179 esterification can make cellulose more hydrophobic. Indeed, available hydroxyl groups on
180 the cellulose surface can react with acid anhydride or acyl chloride reagents. Figure 1
181 shows a schema illustrating a suggested mechanism of acetylation of CNC. Jonoobi *et al.*
182 [44] indicated that the rate of acetylation is low when cellulose has strong hydrogen
183 bonding interactions. Results showed a higher degree of substitution (DS) of hydroxyl
184 groups in kenaf fibers compared with that of nanofibers .

185

186 Another mechanism of acetylation can be carried out using a heterogeneous process. In this
187 process, cellulose is first swollen in a diluent such as toluene, benzene or amyl acetate and
188 is then acetylated with acetic anhydride in the presence of the catalyst sulfuric acid [45]. It
189 has been found that cellulose morphology can vary with the chosen acetylation method. It
190 has been observed that heterogeneous acetylated crystals remain morphologically intact
191 [46]. Ultrastructural aspects on acetylation of cellulose reported by Sassi and Chanzy [45]
192 shows that heterogeneous acetate modified cellulose surface chains surround the non-
193 modified cellulose core. In opposition, homogeneous process leads to substantial
194 morphological changes caused by a constant stripping of the cellulose surface chains as
195 they become acetylated and soluble in the acetylating medium.

196

197 With the objective of reducing the number of laborious steps in modification of
198 nanocellulose, Braun and Dorgan [47] proposed a one-step procedure which consists in a
199 fisher esterification of hydroxyl groups of cellulose simultaneously with hydrolysis of the
200 amorphous cellulose. Surface functionalized cellulose nanocrystals are the result of the
201 reaction using a mixture of an organic acid (acetic or butyric acid) and hydrochloric acid.
202 FTIR spectroscopy showed the presence of ester functional groups and multiangle laser-
203 light scattering (MALLS) indicated that half of the hydroxyl moieties were substituted [47].
204 Moreover, a high dispersibility is achieved when immersing the final product in ethyl
205 acetate or toluene solution.

206 Thereby, these methods lead to a promising dispersion of nanocellulose into hydrophobic
207 polymers by acetylation of hydroxyl moieties of CNC surface or by one-step modification
208 of amorphous cellulose.

209

210

211 *Polymer grafting*

212

213 Grafting polymerization is a well-known method to develop material with particular
214 structure and properties [38]. Polymer grafting is divided into two approaches, the
215 "grafting-onto" and "grafting-from" [48]. The "grafting-onto" approach considers the

216 attachment of pre-synthesized polymer onto the available hydroxyl groups on the cellulose
217 by using a coupling agent. On the other hand, the "grafting-from" approach involves the
218 polymerization *in situ* from initiators attached to the macromolecule surface. New
219 functionalized cellulose nanocrystals can be inserted into a polymer matrix in order to
220 develop new smart and biodegradable materials.

221

222 Biological applications for food industry were suggested by Spizzirri *et al.* (2009) and
223 Curcio *et al.* (2009) by attaching antioxidants onto polysaccharides surface by free radical
224 grafting methods. Based on the beneficial effects of antioxidant on human health and food
225 preservation [49], catechin (CT) and gallic acid (GA) were used in order to synthesize an
226 antioxidant-gelatin conjugate. In this context, antioxidant activities of GA and CT grafted
227 onto gelatin were compared by a process using a hydrogen peroxide-ascorbic acid redox
228 pair as the initiator. Synthesis of antioxidant gelatin was performed by preparing a solution
229 1%, (w/v) of gelatin dissolved in water, then, 5.0 mmol of hydrogen peroxide and 1.4 mmol
230 of ascorbic acid were added. The mixture was maintained at 25°C and after 2 h the
231 antioxidant was added to the solution. The reaction of gelatin solution and antioxidant was
232 maintained for 24 h [38]. Characterization of antioxidant-gelatin conjugate was performed
233 by UV-vis spectroscopy in order to observe the changes in the structure of the polymer.
234 Results showed two characteristic peaks at 227 and 272 nm related to the presence of GA
235 and CT. Similar results were obtained by Curcio *et al.* [37] when grafting GA and CT onto
236 chitosan. Determination of antiradical properties were measured by scavenging effect of
237 2,2'-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical [50] and obtaining high scavenging
238 activities of $66 \pm 3\%$ and $98 \pm 3\%$ for GA and CT, respectively were observed.

239 All the previous methods can be applied to CNC, a possible mechanism of conjugation of
240 an antioxidant molecule by the free radical grafting has been proposed in Fig. 2.
241 Modifications of CNC could lead to enlarge the functionalities of this good mechanical
242 reinforcement to a biactif/antioxidant properties.

243

244 Nanocomposite films of maleated polypropylene grafted cellulose (PPgMA) nanocrystals
245 and surfactant modified nanocrystals dispersed in an amorphous matrix of atactic
246 polypropylene were analyzed by Ljungberg *et al.* [51]. The resulting modified film showed
247 tensile strength improvement compared to that of the neat polypropylene matrix. Similar
248 results were observed by Cao *et al.* [52] who reported that *in situ* polymerization of pre-
249 synthesized waterborne polyurethane (WPU) on the surface of cellulose nanocrystals
250 induces a co-crystallization. Hence, this phenomenon leads to a co-continuous phase
251 between the matrix and filler which enhances the thermal stability and mechanical strength
252 of the resulting nanocomposites in food packaging.

253

254 ***RAFT surface polymerization***

255

256 Reversible Addition-Fragmentation chain Transfer (RAFT) is a recent technique for free
257 radical polymerization. This method has the advantage to control the molecular weight and
258 the topology of the polymer grafted onto another polymer backbone [53]. With the aim of
259 ensuring an efficient molecular distribution that leads to an increased antimicrobial activity,
260 it has been chosen to graft antimicrobial long chain polymers onto cellulose fiber via RAFT
261 polymerization. In this context, quaternary ammonium compounds (QACs) are cationic
262 polymers with several advantages. These include their antibacterial activity, low toxicity,

263 low tissue irritation, increased efficiency and selectivity, and prolonged lifetime [54,55]. In
264 addition, working with long chain antimicrobial agents gives to the binding polymer a
265 higher positive charge which is expected to better attach to negatively charged bacteria
266 rather than using monomeric or low molecular weight cationic components [53]. The
267 general mechanism of attachment of these quaternary ammonium compounds on bacteria is
268 characterized by 4 possible effects: (i) adsorption of positively charged QACs on the
269 negatively charged cell surfaces of microorganisms, (ii) compatibility of lipid bilayer
270 bacterial cytoplasmic membrane with the hydrophilic chains of the QAC-polymer, (iii)
271 binding to the cytoplasmic membrane and (iv) disruption of the cytoplasmic membrane.
272 The instability and the loss of cytoplasmic constituents will lead to the death of
273 microorganisms [55,56].

274

275 Hence, Roy *et al.* [53] have suggested to use tertiary amino groups of 2-(dimethylamino)
276 ethyl methacrylate (DMAEMA) polymer grafted onto cellulose surface. Cellulose-g-
277 PDMAEMA was then quaternized by alkyl bromide action, exhibiting a high activity
278 against *Escherichia coli*. The group observed an influence of the grafting ratio of alkyl
279 chain length (C8-C16), the hydrophobicity of the sample and the degree of quaternization.
280 High efficacy against *E. coli* was found in tertiary cellulose-g-PDMAEMA as well as in
281 quaternized cellulose. The group reported that a grafted ratio of 27% of non-quaternized
282 PDMAEMA and quaternized with C8 alkyl chains led to a 350 and <100 CFU/mL
283 compared to 1×10^6 CFU/mL bacteria added to the sample. The decrease of antibacterial
284 activity with the increase in alkyl chain length has been discussed by other authors [57–60].
285 Indeed, an optimal alkyl chain of eight carbon atoms may lead to a strong interaction of the
286 antimicrobial agent with the bacteria. Moreover, increasing the hydrophilicity (9-27%
287 grafted PDMAEDA) favored the interaction of the polymer with the bacteria, thus, reaching
288 their cytoplasmic membrane [58].

289

290 Antimicrobial polymers were also obtained by quaternization of the poly(2-
291 dimethylamino)ethyl methacrylate-*co*-oligo(ethylene glycol) methyl ether methacrylate
292 P(DMAEMA-*co*-OEGMA) [61] against Gram-positive bacteria *Bacillus subtilis*. Similar
293 correlation of the importance of hydrophobicity was found by these authors in the
294 minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC). This innovative technique has also been applied
295 at room temperature using γ -irradiation as the source initiator. Well-defined polymers onto
296 existing surface have been achieved with a narrow polydispersity [62,63].

297

298 ***TEMPO-mediated oxidation***

299

300 Nowadays, a new selective and more efficient oxidation method has been developed for
301 cellulose fibers. Reagent known as 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl (TEMPO) has
302 been used to oxidize the surface hydroxyl groups of CNC into carboxylic groups
303 [25,30,31,64]. The TEMPO-mediated oxidation is an alternate promising route to convert
304 surface hydroxyl of cellulose into charged carboxyl entities. The mechanism of TEMPO-
305 oxidation is considered as a green and simple technique [25] to modify the surface of
306 macromolecules.

307

308 TEMPO-based chemical modification has a selectivity to oxidize cellulose surface, leaving
309 intact the hydroxyl groups of cellulose core. Since the first work of de Nooy *et al.* [29] it

310 was demonstrated that the oxidation was highly selective with 98% of the primary hydroxyl
311 of potato starch in cold water and >90% in the case of Dahlia inulin at pH 10.5-11.
312 TEMPO-mediated oxidation was also applied to tunicin whiskers with the objective of
313 converting surface hydroxyls of cellulose into negatively charged carboxyl entities [30].
314 Moreover, the authors reported that this technique leads to more stable suspensions of
315 cellulose whiskers compared to aqueous suspensions of CNC extracted with sulfuric acid.
316 Concerning the morphology of the chemically modified cellulose, Habibi *et al.* [30]
317 concluded, after examination in transmission electron microscopy (TEM), that TEMPO-
318 oxidated tunicin whiskers kept the same distribution and cristallinity than those of native
319 cellulose whiskers.

320

321 Stability and non-flocculation was explained by the presence of negative charges at the
322 surface of cellulose, thus a better individualization of the crystallites [64]. With respect to
323 the crystal size of cotton linters and microfibrils of parenchyma cell cellulose (PCC),
324 Montanari *et al.* [64] have shown a decrease of crystal size and a degradation of the
325 amorphous areas of the starting material. Comparing different HCl and TEMPO hydrolysis,
326 it was found that the degree of oxidation (DO) achieved for PCC microfibrils and cotton
327 linters after TEMPO-oxidation was 0.4 and 0.23, respectively. On the contrary, HCl-
328 hydrolysis oxidation reached the DO values of 0.23 for PCC microfibrils and 0.15 for
329 cotton linters.

330

331 It is important to highlight that TEMPO-oxidation can be also used as an intermediate
332 reaction for polymer grafting taking advantage of the negative charge and radical formation
333 in carboxylate groups. Poly(ethylene glycol) (PEG) grafting onto cellulose was conducted
334 via TEMPO-oxidation by Araki *et al.* [65]. A quantity of 0.2-0.3g of resulted PEG was
335 grafted per gram of cellulose and a sterically stabilized aqueous suspension was obtained.
336 The fact of having negative charges allow CNC to bind to others positively charged
337 molecules or polymeric systems. This is the case when cross-linking CNC with anionic
338 molecules such as chitosan. CNC cross-linking with chitosan has been a subject of inquire
339 for many authors [66–68] in the research of drug delivery as well as food packaging
340 applications. Working under acid conditions, chitosan (pK_a of ~ 6.5) is positively charged
341 [69] due to the protonation of its amino groups. Applications of chitosan are focused in
342 fields such as drug delivery and based on its antimicrobial, haemostatic, wound healing and
343 mucoadhesive properties [70]. Food packaging of chitosan are based on its biodegradable,
344 biocompatible and strong antifungal activities [71–74].

345

346 Akhlaghi *et al.* [66] developed a novel drug delivery system based on a peptidic coupling
347 reaction of oxidized CNC to graft chitosan oligosaccharide (CO_{OS}). As a first step,
348 hydroxyl groups of the surface of CNC were oxidized to carboxylic acid groups using
349 TEMPO-mediated oxidation. Then, amino groups of CO_{OS} reacted with carboxylic acid
350 groups on oxidized CNC by action of EDC (1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)
351 carbodiimide) and NHS (N-hydroxysuccinimide, 98%+) cross-linker agents. Results
352 revealed that modified CNC-g- CO_{OS} showed a positive zeta potential due to the positive
353 charges of CO_{OS} in acid medium. In addition to a degree of substitution (DS) of 0.26 of
354 carboxylate groups into amino groups. Previous results indicated that most of the
355 carboxylic acid groups of the oxidized cellulose were involved in the peptidic reaction with
356 CO_{OS} .

357

358 Therefore, expanding outstanding improvement in polymeric applications can be employed
359 by creating TEMPO-oxidized CNC to form a network with other bio-functional polymers.

360

361 **Non covalent surface modifications**

362

363 *Layer-by-layer*

364

365 Compared to covalent modification, the layer-by-layer technique consists in non-covalent
366 hydrogen bonding and electrostatic interactions between the layers of positively charged
367 polymers and negatively charged cellulose. This approach, which has been extended to
368 materials such as proteins and colloids, relies on a consecutive adsorption of polyanions
369 and polycations [75].

370

371 The advantage of having a layer-by-layer (LBL) assembly in food packaging is the addition
372 film oxygen and moisture vapor barrier properties to the product [76,77], significant
373 mechanical strength [78] as well as ultrathin and flexible film properties [77]. Limited
374 research of CNC multilayer composite can be found in the area of food packaging, however
375 recently de Mesquita *et al.* [67] developed a new biodegradable and biocompatible film
376 combining anionic rod-like cellulose nanocrystals with cationic chitosan via LBL assembly
377 technique. The sulfuric acid hydrolyzed cellulose nanocrystals and chitosan layer were
378 applied onto a negatively charged glass or quartz slides. Subsequent immersion of the glass
379 into the solutions of CNCs and chitosan was repeated until the desired quantities of bilayers
380 were deposited. An intermediate step of rinsing was required in between each immersion in
381 order to eliminate the material in excess. The authors concluded that a successful LBL
382 assembly was produced, characterized by a thickness of 7.0 nm per single bilayer. Smooth
383 surface and a dense and homogeneous distribution of nanocomposites in layers have been
384 obtained.

385

386 Similar characteristics were found by the group Podsiadlo *et al.* [79] who reported a bilayer
387 compound of cellulose nanocrystals with poly(diallyldimethylammonium chloride) of 11
388 nm thickness. Surface morphology was characterized by atomic force microscopy (AFM)
389 and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Results revealed a uniform coverage and tightly
390 packed cellulose nanocrystals layers.

391

392 Formation with other cationic polymers with convenient properties for food packaging can
393 also be achieved by this method. It is interesting to note that, because of the negatively
394 charged nature of CNC and its good packing capacity with other polymers not only
395 mechanical properties can be enhanced, but also functional characteristics.

396

397 *Cationic surfactant interaction*

398

399 An important characteristic of CNC, prepared under sulphuric oxidation, is that it becomes
400 negatively charged due to the sulphate ester remained group of the acid treatment [80].
401 Aloulou *et al.* 2004 found by zeta potential method that anionic charges of cellulose are
402 around -10 mV. In this context, positive charges from cationic surfactant can be adsorbed
403 onto the negatively charged cellulose surface with the aim of adding hydrophobic

404 properties. Applications of cationic surfactants have been focused in areas such as organic
405 pollutants and toxic substances removal [81], drug delivery systems [82] and surface
406 modification using admicellar polymerization [83].

407

408 A surfactant, is a molecule which consists of a polar head, soluble in water and
409 hydrophobic alkyl chain, insoluble in water. His amphiphilic behavior act by reducing the
410 surface tension between two non-miscible components. Some cationic polymers are used in
411 food packaging because of their antimicrobial activities. The most potent antimicrobial
412 agent, highly used for active food packaging materials because of its tasteless and odorless
413 properties according to the article 3 of European Regulation [84] is lauric-arginate (LAE).
414 Lauric-arginate or also called N^α-lauroyl-arginine ethyl ester monohydrochloride, is an
415 cationic amino-acid based surfactant that is derivative of lauric acid, L-arginine and ethanol
416 [85,86]. LAE has the property to extend the shelf life of milk products by controlling
417 bacterial growth [87], as well as an efficient action on the cytoplasmic membranes of the
418 microorganisms which leads to alter their metabolic process [85,86,89]. Due to the fact
419 that LAE is quickly metabolized within the human body and prevent microbial growth in
420 food products, its application make it valuable for food products [90].

421

422 Hence, bioactive films were proposed by Muriel-Galet *et al.* [88] where LAE reinforced
423 ethylene-vinyl alcohol (EVOH) film, showed transparent and optical properties and good
424 antimicrobial release (80%) at 23°C when 5% and 10% LAE were added in EVOH
425 polymer.

426

427 Studies made by Asker *et al.* [90] suggested that cationic surfactants mixed with non-ionic
428 surfactants creates micelles with anionic polysaccharides. The research group indicated that
429 antimicrobial activity of LAE in combination with non-ionic Tween 20 (T20) leads to a
430 stable solution when pectin was used as anionic polysaccharide. Due to the fact that food
431 can also be stored at ambient or cold temperatures, this parameter was of great importance.
432 Resulted LAE/T20 micelles loaded in pectin based suspensions were more stable to
433 aggregation in temperatures of 4°C and 22°C during a period of time of 1-2 weeks than
434 suspensions in the absence of T20 [90].

435

436 LAE micelles systems chitosan-based films have been tested on the surface of fresh
437 chicken breast fillets. An antimicrobial effect was found along with a significant decrease
438 of growth reduction (> 4 log) for mesophiles, psychrophiles and *Pseudomonas spp.* yeast
439 and fungi. Chitosan films evidenced an antimicrobial effect in the range 0.47-2.96 log
440 reductions, while chitosan-5%LAE film produced 1.78-5.81 log reduction. Similar results
441 were obtained against coliform bacteria and hydrogen sulfide-producing bacteria [91].

442 These results may indicate that anionic biopolymers can have an antimicrobial activity by
443 adding cationic surfactants in their matrices. Other amino-acid based surfactants such as the
444 arginine-based cationic N^α-acyl-arginine-methyl ester hydrochloride, arginine-N-alkyl
445 amide dihydrochloride and arginine-O-alkyl ester dihydrochloride can also be used,
446 because of their non-toxicity and biodegradability in combination with antimicrobial
447 properties [92].

448

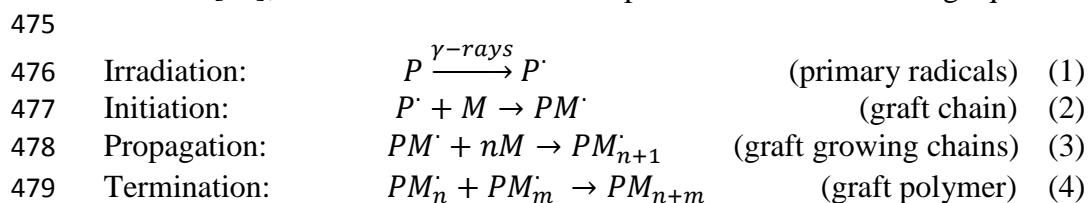
449 Similar results can be expected of CNC when a cationic surfactant, such as LAE, interacts
450 with its negative charges. Figure 3 shows a schematic procedure of ionic interaction
451 between LAE and CNC.

452 **Radiation induced graft copolymerization**

453
454 Modification of polymers surface by grafting monomers onto active sites has been an
455 attractive method to give additional functionalities to the polymer backbone. Surface
456 grafting polymerization is, in most of the cases, induced by decomposition of a chemical
457 initiator which propagates the reaction, however the use of other initiators such as ozone
458 [93], γ -rays [94], electron beam [95], plasma [96], corona discharge [97] and ultraviolet
459 irradiation [98] have also been employed. In radiation-induced graft copolymerization
460 method, active sites are produced on the polymer backbone using high energy radiation,
461 thus, the irradiated polymer can react with monomer units, which propagate to form side
462 chain grafts [99]. Radiation-induced graft polymerization have the advantages of its
463 simplified process, no residual by-products and low cost of production [100]. It also offers
464 the possibility of initiating the polymerization in a wide range of temperatures and under
465 various experimental conditions such as bulk, solution, and emulsion or solid [101].

466 467 *Method of radiation-induced graft polymerization*

468
469 Two methods are involved in radiation-induced graft copolymerization: the first method
470 presented is called simultaneous irradiation where a polymer in the presence of a monomer
471 are activated together to form free radicals from both polymer backbone and monomer
472 units. Thus, monomer is immediately grafted to polymer backbone and polymerization is
473 started. This type of irradiation can be carried out in air, under inert atmosphere (e.g. N₂) or
474 vacuum [99]; the reaction mechanism is presented in the following equations (eqs. 1-4).



480
481 The second method is called pre-irradiation where the polymer is irradiated in the absence
482 of the monomer, followed by immersion in the monomer solution [99,102]. If the
483 irradiation step is carried out in air, the generated radical react with oxygen to form
484 peroxides and hydroperoxides, thus, polymerization is finished. However, this effect is
485 reversible when thermal degradation of hydroperoxides takes place, thus, polymerization
486 can be re-activated. On the other hand, when irradiation is performed in the absence of air,
487 the irradiated polymer created radicals that remain trapped on the polymer backbone and
488 initiate grafting in the presence of monomer units as explained previously.

489 Limitations of this technique are the high levels of production of monomer radical rather
490 than growing chains of polymer radicals, leading to a non-controlled method. To overcome
491 this problem, many studies [62,103] have presented a controlled RAFT polymerization with
492 irradiation.

493

494 In a recent study, poly(hydroxyethylmethacrylate) was grafted from surface with a RAFT
495 agent (cumyldithiobenzoate, CDB) by gamma-irradiation at 5.98 kGy [104]. The resulted
496 cellulose-g-PHEMA showed a controlled grafting of HEMA monomer while changing the
497 [HEMA]/[CDB] ratio. Compared to the polydispersity (PD) achieved by conventional
498 grafting technique (19.6), RAFT-mediated polymerization PD was 2.5. An increase of
499 hydrophobicity due to the grafted PHEMA was observed from contact angle measurements.
500 The authors observed that by increasing the degree of grafting of PHEMA to cellulose from
501 11 to 44.5 %, the contact angle increases from 18.2° to 55.4°. Barsbay *et al.* [103] also
502 reported effective results after polystyrene grating onto cellulose via radiation-induced
503 polymerization. Enzymatic stability of cellulose-g-polystyrene with 39% graft ratio was
504 proven after 3 weeks of testing against *Trichoderma reesei* hydrolysis, compared to the
505 rapid degradation seen in non-modified cellulose. The resulting cellulosic materials showed
506 a complete protection against the enzymatic attack, indicating an efficient polystyrene
507 covering onto the surface of the cellulose.

508 Antibacterial activity was also improved onto cotton fabric after radiation-induced grafting
509 of vinylbenzyltrimethylammonium chloride (VBT) [105]. It was suggested that increasing
510 the irradiation dose from 2 to 8 kGy the grafting yield of VBT onto cellulose increases. By
511 working with a grafting yield ~25% of VBT onto cotton cellulose substrate showed an
512 approximately 6 log cycle reduction in bacterial counts of *Escherichia coli* and
513 *Staphylococcus aureus* with respect to the control sample within 6 h of exposure. This
514 application done on antibacterial cotton tissues was analyzed before and after washing with
515 commercial detergent powder, demonstrating that the antibacterial activity for both
516 microorganisms was not affected after 4 washing cycles .

517
518 Lacroix *et al.* [106] who found that grafting polymers via gamma irradiation enhances the
519 interaction within polymer blends, the film formation and interfacial adhesion of multi-
520 layered systems, resulting in improved mechanical properties. In this study, zein and
521 poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) were gamma-irradiated in the presence of different ratios of
522 acrylic acid (AAc) monomer. The grafted films (zein/PVA-g-AAc) showed an
523 improvement of puncture strength (PS) and puncture deformation (PD) of 30% and 50%,
524 respectively by adding to PVA 5% of monomer under 20 kGy. Similar behaviors were
525 observed on grafted 35% of 2-hydroxyethylmethacrylate (HEMA) or silane in
526 methylcellulose under 10 kGy. Mechanical properties improvements were reported with
527 values of PS of 282-296 N.mm⁻¹ and PD of 5.0-5.5 mm, as compared to 147 N.mm⁻¹ and
528 3.96 mm respectively for ungrafted films. Finally, a trilayer grafted composite film formed
529 by binding polycaprolactone (PCL)/chitosan with silane-grafted chitosan under 10 kGy
530 showed a higher tensile strength of 22 MPa, because of the interlayer adhesion of
531 molecules. The use of CNC as a reinforcing agent and trimethylolpropane trimethylacrylate
532 (TMPTMA) as grafted plasticizer in methylcellulose-based irradiated films creates a
533 tortuosity and decreases the water vapor permeability (WVP) in the films of 25% [107].

534
535 According to these studies, either mechanical, physicochemical or antimicrobial properties
536 can be improved after using graft-polymerization via gamma-irradiation. Development in
537 new biodegradable materials can focus in this relevant method for including to their
538 systems bioactive monomers in packaging sectors.

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540

541 **Conclusions and outlook**

542

543 This review has provided an overview of the emerging modifications of CNC surface for
544 bioactive food packaging applications. Taking advantage of CNC surface functional
545 groups, reactions such as acetylation, polymer grafting, TEMPO-mediated oxidation or
546 radiation-induced polymerization can be applied. Thus, a more stable, hydrophobic and
547 active cellulose can be expected depending on the procedure used.

548 Acetylation was shown to improve the hydrophobicity of cellulose surface, leading to a
549 better compatibility with non-polar active molecules or polymer matrices. Only when
550 heterogeneous acetylation is employed, morphological changes may occur due to the
551 acetate cellulose fibers that are stripped and dissolved into the reactive medium.
552 Polymerization either *in situ* or by pre-synthesized can be produced via polymer grafting
553 techniques, controlled grafting polymerization and a narrow polydispersity on cellulose
554 surface is achieved when RAFT polymerization is carried out.

555 Negative charges introduced onto cellulose surface will play an important role when
556 cationic polymers are added. Polyelectrolyte interactions can be induced by TEMPO-
557 mediated oxidation or layer-by-layer assembly.

558 Due to their improved and novel compatibility of modified CNC with various organic or
559 inorganic compounds, these conjugates could become material interesting in many others
560 areas such as engineering and medical fields. It is important to underline that the desired
561 functional compound to be attached requires a previous study in order to observe the
562 efficacy of the final product.

563

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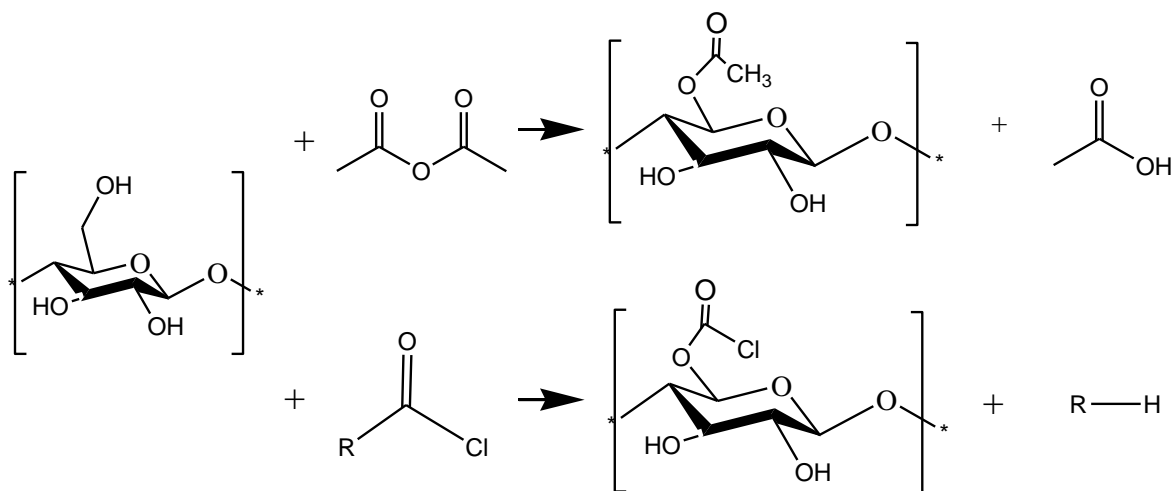
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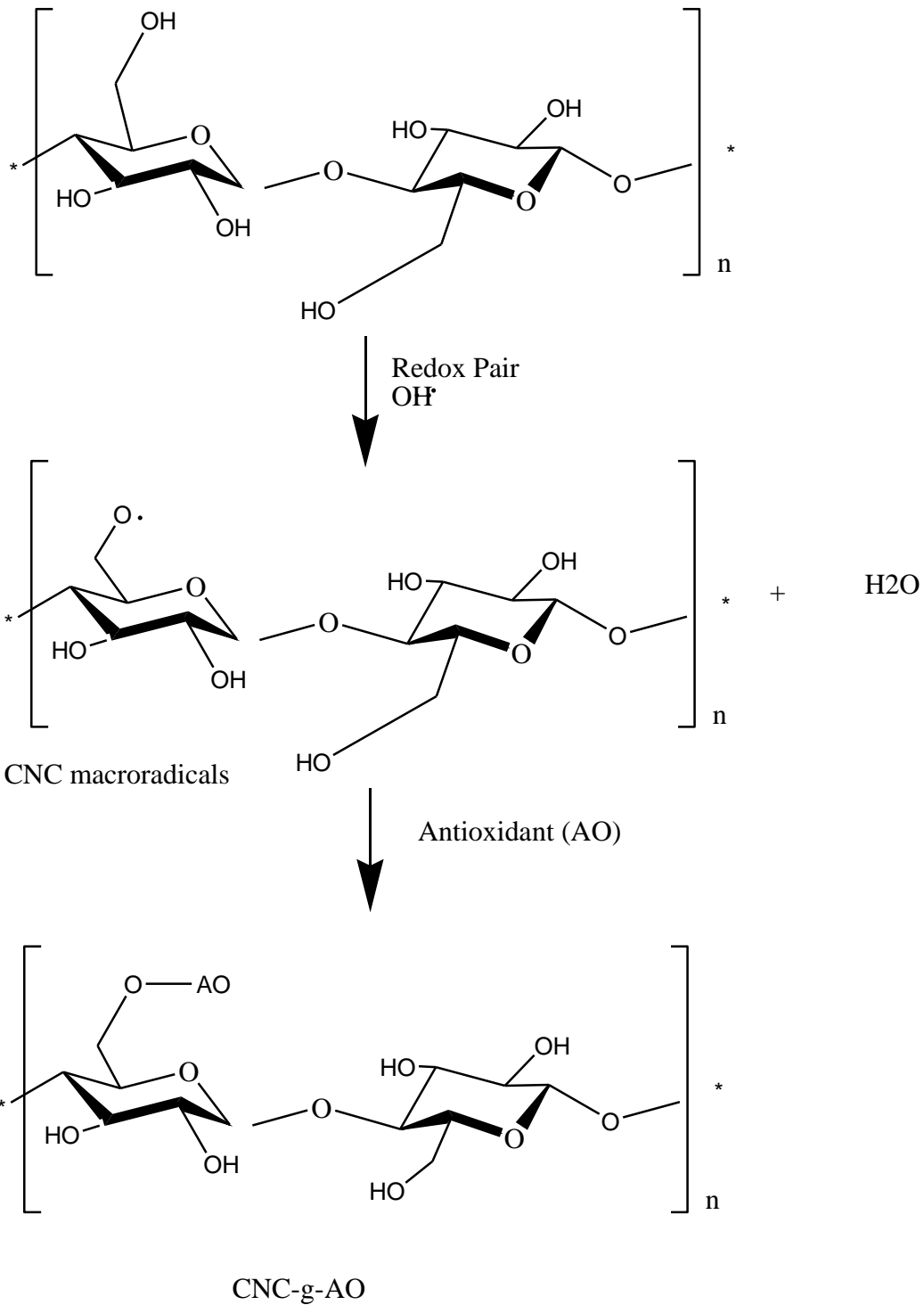
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872 **Figures**
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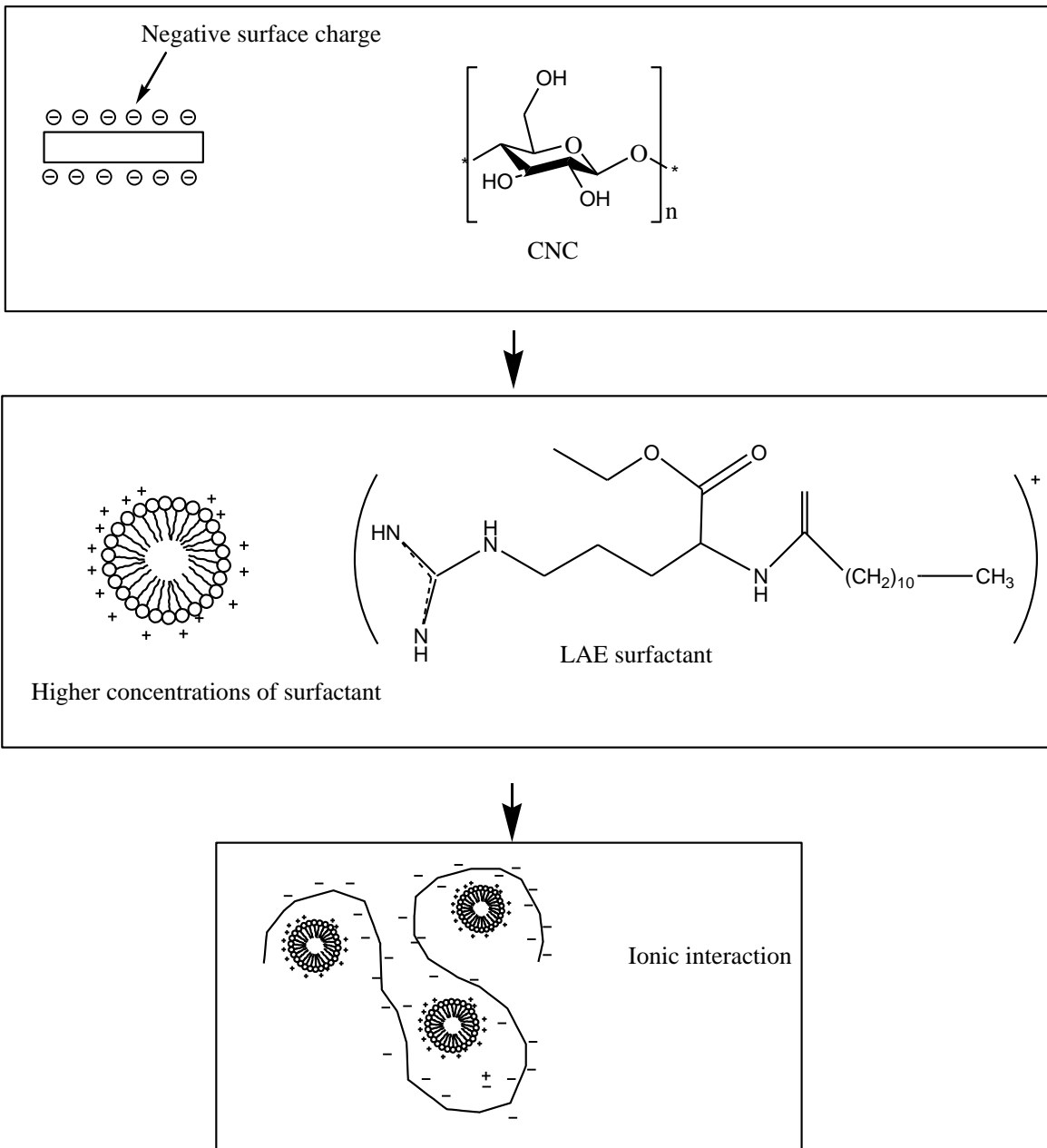
874
875 Fig. 1. The proposed mechanism of reaction of CNC with acetic anhydride and acetyl
876 chloride reagents.

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Fig. 2. The proposed mechanism of grafting procedure of antioxidant molecule on cellulose nanocrystals by action of redox pair.



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Fig. 3. Schematic representation of the ionic interaction of lauric arginate (LAE) surfactant micelles with CNC.